● 132, 113 Telugu AW17

[For a description of climate regions of the Indian sub-continent and its general effects on agriculture and health, see 6: Spate AW1 India, category 116, pp. 40-62.]

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

CHAPTER ONE

The Setting

1. THE SETTING

105 131 SHAMIRPET is a village situated at a distance of about twenty-five miles from the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secundrabad in the Deccan plateau of India. Culturally it lies in the region known as Telangana, which is itself a part of the wider culture-area of Andhra-desa. Telangana is a country of fertile fields and barren rocks; a land of temples, tanks and lakes. It is estimated that there are over twenty thousand lakes and tanks in this region, which covers an area of more than 42,000 square miles. Shamirpet is located by the side of one of these tanks and lies on the road that links the capital city of Hyderabad with Karimnagar, the headquarters of the northern district of that name.

133 134 137 132 The picturesque landscape of the village is truly characteristic of the Deccan plateau. The soil is in part black and in part red, and is suitable for the cultivation of rice, millet, castor and other oil-seeds, pulses and tobacco. An endless series of barren rocks formed of gneisses and granites dominates the land. Tall palmyra trees stand magnificently and imperiously against the often-clear sky, evergreen shrubs circle the rock formations and tamarind trees grow here and there near human habitation. In the countryside surrounding Shamirpet the average annual rainfall is about twenty-five inches. From Indian standards, the climate is moderate and knows no extremes either in winter or in summer. The days during the summer season are rather hot, the temperature often touching 112° F., but the evenings and nights are always cool and pleasant. In some winter nights the temperature drops to 137 45° F. There is little forest in the country immediately surrounding

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

ordinary cultivators have to employ casual labour. The rates of daily wages have now increased considerably. In 1939 a male labourer was paid 3 to 6 annas a day, while a woman was paid 2 to 4 annas. In 1951, men were paid between 1 rupee and 1 rupee 8 annas per day, while the women got 8 to 12 annas per day. Rich landowners employ labourers on the basis of an annual contract also. Rates of payment vary with the age, ability and experience of the person employed; and also partly with the financial position of the employer. According to our statistics wages differ from Rs. 280 to Rs. 120 per year, and may be paid in cash or kind. Depending on the agreement the employee may be paid a cash monthly salary, or he may be paid a part in cash and a part in grain. Very often the agreement includes the following in the wages for the year: an agreed sum at the end of the year, one or two meals a day or a specified quantity of grain every week, and a set or two of new clothes and footwear or a blanket. As a rule advances are drawn from time to time, and when they exceed the stipulated sum the labourer has to agree to work the following year also to repay the debt.

3. THE AGRICULTURAL YEAR

The agriculturists in Shamirpet follow the local almanac. Most of their moves in farm activity depend upon the position of the stars in the sky. According to this almanac a month is divided into two *katis*, each with a duration of approximately fifteen days. Each of these divisions bears a name which indicates a particular position of the stars. According to the traditional agricultural lore of the people the different *katis* are suitable for different kinds of agricultural activities and provide the agriculturist with a schedule for the different stages of his work in the field. Of course, he also takes into consideration other natural factors, such as the possibility of rainfall in the immediate future; but in general his moves follow the time-tested schedule of the Hindu calendar. Muslim agriculturists too follow this calendar and share with their Hindu neighbours their agricultural folklore.

In late summer (i.e. the end of May) the agriculturists keep their fields clear for ploughing in anticipation of a light shower of rain. Invariably there is some rainfall during this period which softens the ground and makes it possible for them to start ploughing. With the advent of this eagerly awaited drizzle the farmers

241 can be seen carrying their wooden ploughs and driving their pairs of bullocks to the fields. No time must be lost, for the hardening of land may render ploughing difficult and this may eventually result in late sowing.

241 About this time they go to the Brahmin to fix an auspicious 787 day for planting vegetables and creepers in their backyards. The Brahmin consults his almanac to find out a day on which the stars of the person and the constellation in the sky match, for such a day is believed to be most suitable for sowing vegetables. Fortified with these astrological predictions, the Hindu agriculturists make initial preparations for planting these backyard crops. Muslims and poorer Hindus do not avail themselves of the services of the Brahmin priest. Beds and pits are kept ready well in advance, and on the appropriate day suggested by the Brahmin (or fixed by the family if the priest has not been consulted) seeds are sown. In the rainy season almost everyone grows some vegetables and creepers, and these are in most cases the only vegetables regularly eaten in any part of the year. The favourites among these vegetables are: runner beans, snake-gourds and pumpkins. Bottle-gourd and sponge-gourd are planted a few days later. Okra, bringals and some other green vegetables are also grown.

241 Later, when more showers have fallen, the agriculturists hasten to sow maize and millet in the fields. A late variety of rice, locally known as *samber*, is sown in carefully made beds to be transplanted into regular fields later.

In the first two weeks of June operations started in late May are continued. Light showers at this time are further utilized to complete the ploughing. Sowing of maize is also continued. Late varieties of paddy are now directly sown into the fields. Fifteen to twenty days after sowing they visit the fields to remove the weeds.

[132] In the second half of June the rainfall is generally regular and satisfactory. During this time people must complete their sowing of *kharif* crops such as maize and millet. Ground-nut, linseed and other oil seeds are also sown during this period. All these crops are grown on dry land as they do not require any extra irrigation.

241 For a month and a half after this the sowing of paddy is continued. At this time mostly coarse and medium varieties are sown. These include two mixed strains developed by the Department of Agriculture, Hyderabad State, and are locally known as paddy

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and Tungabhadra valleys lie at 1000–1500 ft, and to the NW the watershed between the Bhima and the Godavari is a great swelling upland reaching 2400 ft in places. But the general aspect nearly everywhere is that of practically senile peneplains, intersected by broad, open, almost completely graded valleys, and littered with monadnocks which range from considerable hill-groups to innumerable fantastic tors which look like dumps of gigantic road-metal. Around Hyderabad City these form "a chaos of granitic boulders . . . piled up in bizarre heaps, as if giants had amused themselves with childish games"; in places these rocky belts form a wilderness wide enough to act as a marchland.[34] With the poor sandy red soils of the gneisses and granites, a variable rainfall of 25–35 ins., and May mean temperatures in the 90s, life is hard except in favoured basins, where soil-wash and tank irrigation give some prosperity. Bare hills, reddish-khaki plains with scattered thorny scrub, rivers merely ribbons of sand for half the year or more, tanks bunded into the little valleys, all combine to produce a landscape with a desolate and brooding charm. The contrast between Hyderabad Marathwara and Telangana is extremely striking, and is brought out by Figs. 130 and 131.

The Ceded Districts are if anything worse.[35] In Marathwara there is hardly any surface water in the hot weather, except in the bigger streams; in Sn Telangana even this exception hardly holds. The railway bridges are stoutly built to withstand the immense volume of monsoon water in rivers which are then half a mile or more wide; in the hot weather they traverse great flats with a yard or so of water in the middle, and the herds of cattle or goats crossing the bed are recognisable from afar by their great clouds of dust.

Except for the jungles of the N, the region presents a decided savannah aspect, poor savannah with widely spaced acacias. Most of the tors are absolutely naked, and their skirts (with much of the more or less level ground) carry only a thorny scrub, in which euphorbias are prominent, while in damper depressions there are scattered palms, toddy or the wild Indian date. The scrub is secondary, on ground long subject to the depredations of sheep and especially goats, or once cultivated.

Agriculture

Rainfall, by and large, is much the same in Telangana as in Maharashtra; if anything more favourable, since the region lies farther from the lee of the Ghats and more open to Bay of Bengal influences. But differences in terrain and soil are decisive. The area here considered is about 75,000 sq mls, of which the TSA is only about 43% (approximately 20,250,000 ac.).[36] Forest

[34] E. Reclus, *L'Inde* (1883), 506; cf. *Hyderabad Gaz.* (1909), 2.
[35] For some vivid remarks, see J. C. Molony, *A Book of South India* (1926), 166.
[36] Figures even more approximate than usual, as those of Hyderabad are internally suspect.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
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133 dicates deposition in shallow but not sheltered waters, and the general lie of the E coast may thus be of great antiquity. The change in strike between the Orissa Hills and the Cuddapahs is very closely followed by the coast.

137 The hills are wooded and the pattern of relief stands out clearly on forest 132 and population maps (Figs. 18, 30); but the forest is thin, rainfall being 323 only about 40 ins. and the rocks porous or fissured. The few inhabitants are mostly Chenchus, an aboriginal tribe living a semi-pastoral existence eked out by the collection of honey, bamboos, fuel for the railways, and other minor forest produce.

311 The valleys, however, though on the whole poor enough, have a fair 312 amount of cultivation, mostly jowar (25–30% TSA), other millets, groundnut (16–20%), with some irrigated paddy. The topography in the longitudinal valleys favours the construction of large tanks by bunding a transverse [496] tributary gorge. The main (GIP) Madras–Bombay railway strikes diagonally across the S of the region, and is one of the most interesting traverses 133 in India. The hill country is first entered in the Nagaris, which are the last 361 Cuddapah outliers; here Renigunta and Tirupati are little towns control- 311 ling at once the route up the Swarnamukhi, the crossings of the river, and the col to the N between the Palkondas and Velikondas. Beyond, in the Razampeta corridor, the contrast between cultivated floor and barren hills is exceedingly sharp. The generally arid aspect is mitigated by groves of [342] mangoes around the tanks; houses are stone- or mud-walled, and round beehive huts, striped vertically in white and rusty red, attest the Telugu country. After crossing the wide bed of the Cheyyeru, the line emerges at Cuddapah from grey and arid hills into a greyer plain, a vast ash-coloured expanse largely given over to dry cultivation. The region lies on the margin of the October–December rainfall area of the Madras littoral, and the rivers rise in the dry Mysore Maidan, not in the Wn Ghats as do Kistna and Tungabhadra; hence, even in August, the great streams—Penner itself, Cheyyeru, Papagni, Chitravati—may be spreads of quartzite boulders, shingle, or sand, several hundred yards wide with a line of water a yard across, or even not a drop; while only 90 miles to the N the Ghats-fed rivers are full, great ribbons of muddy water half a mile or more wide.

312 Through the Kunderu valley runs the ill-starred Kurnool Canal, constructed in 1860–76 by a private company which apparently failed to notice the difference in the régimes of Peninsular and extra-Peninsular rivers; the complete, but inefficient, canal had eventually to be taken over by the government in 1882 after two decades of mismanagement. The topographical layout is obviously encouraging, and it is now proposed to recast the whole project, with reservoirs on the Kistna and at Someswaram in the lowest of the Penner watergaps; the project, if carried out in full, would irrigate no less than 3 m. ac., mostly, however, in the coastal plain of Nellore.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Orissa AW13
Telugu AW14

CHAPTER XXIV

THE EASTERN LITTORAL: ORISSA AND ANDHRA DESA

(Regions XXXIII and XXXIV)[1]

Generalities

THE En Littoral forms a strong contrast to the Wn. The lowland is in general much wider, and much of it is a true coastal plain structurally, with in-facing cuestas developed on Cretaceous and Tertiary epeirogenetic deposits; elsewhere it is formed of the great deltas of the Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery. In the S the coastal lowland is no less than 60–80 miles wide, and is backed not by a steep more or less continuous wall but by the broken Tamilnad Hills (Javadis, Shevaroys, etc.) and by the low (1000–1500 ft) plateaus around the middle Cauvery. O T 133

The climatic variation on this 1200-mile coast is highly significant. The N lies full in the track of the Bay of Bengal branch of the summer monsoon and receives *c.* 60 ins.; but Sn Orissa already lies on the fluctuant flank of this great current and receives a lower (*c.* 50 ins.) and less reliable fall. As we move S we enter the largest area of anomalous rainfall régime in the sub-continent, the SE which has its rainy season in the months of the retreating monsoon, October–December. From the great bend of the coast S of the Kistna delta this régime is dominant, and the lie of the coast—sub-parallel to the track of the rain-bearing depressions—contributes to generally low figures. The extreme S, Ramnad and Tinnevelly, is sheltered from the Arabian Sea branch by the high Anaimalai/Cardamom block, while to the N the great projection of the Cauvery delta, low-lying as it is, yet shuts off some at least of the retreating monsoon rain. Here we have remarkably low figures (25–30 ins.) for a coastal area in sub-equatorial latitudes. O T 133 132

The agricultural contrasts which would normally result are to some extent masked by irrigation in the great deltas, but are nevertheless striking enough (Fig. 139). Orissa is as typical a paddy-land as Bengal—indeed in Balasore Dt over 95% of TSA is *unirrigated* paddy, and millets are totally absent. S of the Kistna, however, they generally exceed the area of *unirrigated* rice, and in places all rice; paddy dominates the landscape only where irrigation is possible on a reasonably large scale. There is further the difference between tank- and canal-irrigation, the former dominant everywhere away from the deltas. O T 311 [312]

The primary division, then, is that between the areas of normal and of O T 133

[see cat. 116, pp. 361-362 and map facing p. 362.--ANALYST]

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Orissa AW13
Telugu AW17

anomalous season of rain; but this is cut across by the deltas and, in the S especially, there is considerable regional diversity. Culturally also there is the great distinction between the Aryan-speaking (Oriya) lands N of Vizagapatam and the Dravidian S, itself divided into Andhra Desa (Telugu)

THE EASTERN LITTORAL

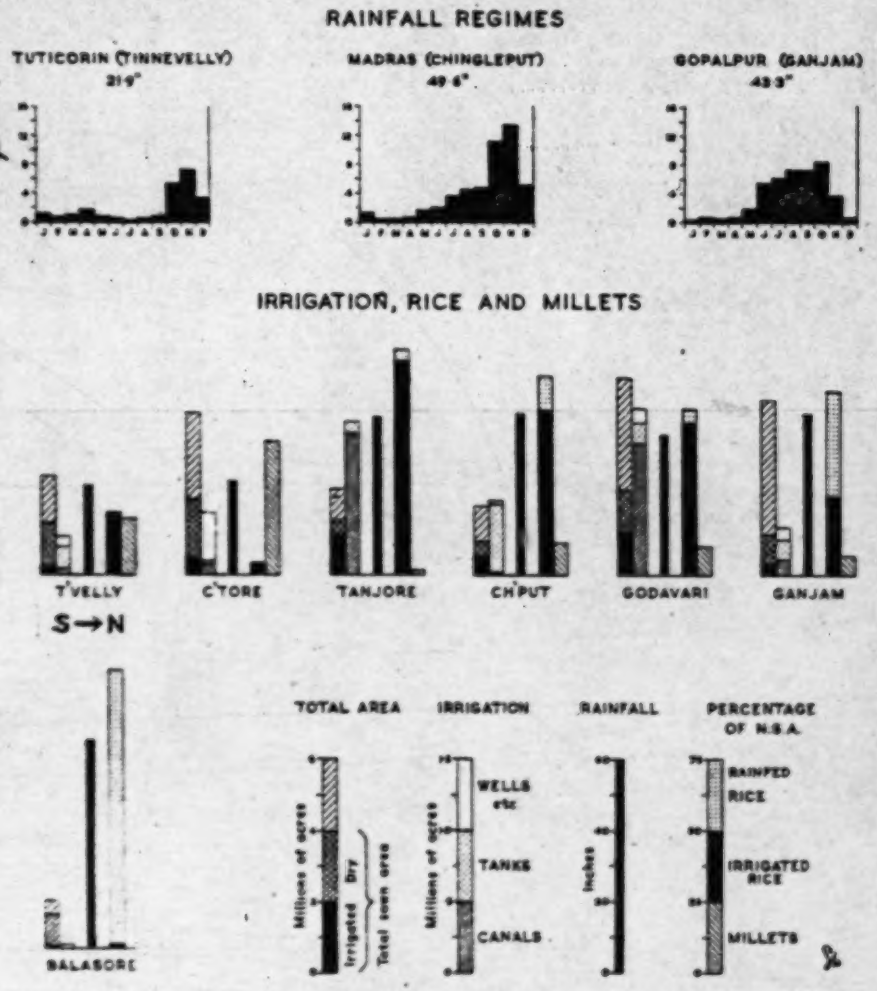

Fig. 139.—The Eastern Littoral: Rain, Rice, and Millets.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Orissa AW13
Telugu AW17

Mercara in tiny Coorg, and it is in any case being superseded as the seat of government by a new town at Bhuvaneshwar, 20 miles S of Cuttack.

There may, however, be a brighter future for Orissa. The merger of the hill states increased the area by 85% (to 59,869 sq mls) and the population by 58% (to 14,645,946); these are the largest gains by merger in all *India*. The ending of the fantastic fragmentation of the State may facilitate co-ordinated development of the Mahanadi power projects and flood control (above, 678); it also gives some hope for the development of the forest resources of the excessively backward hills: timber (floated down the Mahanadi), lac, tussore silk.

The Northern Circars

This region, which corresponds to littoral Andhra Desa, is a transition zone in every respect. In the N we have the normal monsoon rainfall distribution; but the October–December proportion increases steadily in importance Swds, together with a decrease in total amount and in rainy days. Already in Kistna Dt a third of the rain comes in the last quarter of the year, but these rains are more uncertain than those of the more usual monsoon months. In Ganjam Oriya is still dominant, but where the coastal plain narrows beneath the abrupt peak of Mahendragiri (4923 ft) the Aryan tongue gives way to Dravidian Telugu, which holds sway as far as the Nagari Hills (Fig. 127). To the S Nellore represents a further stage in the transition.

Ganjam, Vizagapatam, Godavari E and W, Kistna and Guntur Dts form the Northern Circars, brought under Muslim rule by the Golconda kings about 1575, ceded to the French in 1753; 12 years later the EIC obtained a grant of the whole from the Mogul Emperor, though of course his nominal subordinate the Nizam had exercised wh. government existed, apart from that of warring petty rajahs; this was the Company's first considerable territorial acquisition outside Bengal. Despite the Telugu culture and the modern historical identity, the region seems to lack unity. The proliferation of small ports and trading stations in the early European phase was perhaps a reflection of this; the Dutch factories at Bimlipatam and Coconada were not ceded to the EIC until 1825, and they had forced the early English settlement at Pulicat to move in 1625 to Armagaon, the parent of Madras. In Masulipatam the factory at French-pettah was not handed over to *India* until 1947, while English-palam and Volanda (Holland)-palam mark the settlements of those nations in the same town. Nizampatam was the first English station on the E coast (1611), and Yanaon (area 5 sq mls, poptn 5711) in the Godavari Delta survives as the last relic of the 18th century French holdings.

The total area is about 25,000 sq mls with a 1941 population of *c.*

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu

12 m.; densities increase from Ganjam (420) to E Godavari (714) and then decrease to Guntur (393); beyond the regional limits Nellore, with more Archaean terrain than the central parts of the Circars, and less (and less reliable and well distributed) rain than the Nn, had only 204. On the whole it seems best to treat Ganjam/Vizagapatam and the deltas separately.

(a) *The North*: *Ganjam and Vizagapatam* (*Vizakhapatnam*)

Essentially this is the area with over 40 ins.: the three Sn taluks of Vizagapatam fall a little short of this. The lowland narrows to 12 miles under Mahendragiri, but on either side of this gate are the embayments of the Rushikulya (Ganjam) and the Languliya and Vansadhara (Vizag) valleys. The plains are floored by red lateritic soils near the hills, shading off into black loams and clays; but they are cut up by numerous irregular outliers of the En Hills: thus Vizagapatam itself lies between the 1600-ft Kailana Ridge to the N and the 1100-ft Yaroda to the S; the latter runs out to sea in the bold cliffs (300 ft) of Dolphin's Nose which shelters the port, while in the Nn suburbs of the town are the peculiar Waltair Highlands, *c.* 150 ft high and formed largely by the accumulation, since the Pleistocene, of red loams partly fluviatile and partly perhaps aeolian.[3]

Of a TSA of some 4 m. ac., rice accounts for about 1·65 m. ac., ragi 390,000, oilseeds (chiefly groundnut) 500,000, the balance being widely distributed amongst millets and pulses mainly. Irrigation is on the whole unimportant, much of it being dependent on temporary mud-and-brushwood dams across the short rivers.

Mineral resources are few—graphite, manganese, kaolin, mica—and hardly developed; a potential resource of some interest in this atomic age, though limited in amount in comparison with other *Indian* occurrences, is the ilmenite and monazite in the dunes and beaches around Vizagapatam.[4]

Industrial development—with the important exception of the Vizag shipyards—is again negligible: two or three jute and sugar mills in the Vizagapatam plains. Hydro-electric development in the hills might alter this.

Again there is only one real town, 'Vizag' itself (108,042), which has developed considerably since the opening of the railway up the Languliya valley to Raipur and the subsequent dredging of a deep-water harbour in the tidal marshes. The accommodation at quayside is limited, but it is more up-to-date than at most E coast ports. The selection of Vizag as the main shipbuilding centre of *India* is presumably because of its situation as the nearest *ocean* port to Jamshedpur, but it is still a long way round. Ships up to 8000 tons have been launched. The hinterland extends to Nagpur and the chief trade is in Madhya Pradesh (CP) manganese, and oilseeds and their products. The small ports of Bimlipatam and Gopalpur are quite

[3] See the very original paper by C. Mahadevan and N. Sathapathi, "The Origin of the Waltair Highlands", *JGJ* XXIV (1949), 26–51.

[4] *Ibid.*, *loc. cit.*, 29.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
Telugu
AW17

133 311 The worn-down margin of the Archaean hinterland is poor country: undulating plains broken by little hills, with much waste and stony ground; soils are mainly lateritic with some loams. The coast for several miles inland is largely fringed with mangrove swamp (valuable as a fuel reserve) or sand-dunes rising to 30 or 50 ft. Between the relatively negative upland and the completely negative coast lie the rather limited areas of true delta. At Bezwada (Vijayarada), 45 miles inland, the Kistna crosses a low gneissic ridge in a 1300-yd-wide gap; this is utilised for the headworks of canals irrigating about 900,000 ac. The Godavari Delta begins 40 miles inland at Dowleshwaram, where a dam 2¼ miles long feeds canals for another 1 m. ac. (TSA; NSA 800,000). The deltas are of course liable to flood, at times disastrous; and cyclones are also a danger, that of 1864 causing 30,000 deaths and ruining the prosperity of Masulipatam port for ever. In the Kistna delta the land slopes away from the main distributaries at about 18 ins. to the mile, and in that of the Godavari below Dowleshwaram "the country is a vast expanse of ricefields dotted with gardens and villages. During the rains the greater part of this tract becomes one sheet of water, only village sites, canal banks, roads, and field boundaries appearing above it. Later in the year, as the rice grows higher, the dividing boundaries are hidden; and the whole country looks like a single ricefield, the groves around the villages, the road avenues, and the white sails of the boats gliding along the main canals breaking the uniform sea of waving green crop." * There is still a certain amount of local traffic, chiefly paddy, on the canals.

[312] [731]

Between the deltas Colair Lake occupies a depression not yet silted up, though constantly diminishing by natural and artificial encroachment; covering about 100 sq mls in the rains, it has at times dried out. Its numerous islands are intensively cultivated, and there is a good deal of fishing.

132 241 312 Rainfall exceeds 35 ins. only in the seaward half of the Godavari Delta, and the tendency to October maxima is unfavourable to the groundnut and early paddy harvests, while cotton sowings must be late. Irrigation, if not essential, is at least highly useful; its importance is reflected in the high densities (up to 1100 plus) of some delta taluks. The following figures (in thousand acres approximately) give a summary view of the agriculture:

241 311

	Total area	*NSA*	*TSA*	*Rice*	*Total foodgrains*	*Ground-nuts*	*Total oilseeds*
E Godavari.	3981	1072	1380	692	1070	4	142
W Godavari	1511	800	1111	697	823	42	115
Kistna .	2270	1119	1225	572	877	185	195
Guntur .	3684	2092	2384	400	1405	365	395

* *Ibid.*, 268–69.

31: Slater S-5 (1916-1917) 1918 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

KISTNA DISTRICT.

VUNAGATLA.

[*By K. S. Narayana Murti, Christian College, Madras.*]

Vunagatla, in the Yernagudem taluk of the Kistna district, is an upland village, four miles distant from Nidadavolu, an important centre of railway and river traffic. On one side it is bounded by the high road from Nidadavolu to the Gōdāvari Agency, on the other by a great sandy tract filled with palmyra trees. The climate is extreme, the unbearable heat of summer being followed by the excessive rains of the rainy season, and the extreme cold of winter. It is a purely dry village, depending entirely on the annual rains.

Population.—The population has been increasing steadily since the first census.

Census.	Population.	Census.	Population.
1871	1,237	1901	2,150
1881	1,567	1911	2,519
1891	2,017		

Brahmans and Vaisyas are increasing, and so are the Sudras, who are temperate and simple and hardy in habits. The rate of mortality is high among the Pariahs and washermen and other low castes.

The official figures of births and deaths cannot be entirely relied on. They are, for 1911—15, as follows:—

Births.

Year.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1911	33	52	85
1912	55	49	104
1913	49	49	98
1914	48	52	100
1915	41	52	93
	226	254	

Deaths.

Year.	Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fevers.	Respiratory diseases.	Other causes	Men.	Women.	Children under 14.	Total.
1911	226	...	42	...	28	71	88	137	296
1912	...	...	48	...	47	30	24	41	95
1913	...	...	62	3	2	18	20	29	67
1914	6	8	62	4	18	33	40	25	98
1915	...	112	41	17	13	53	49	81	183

31: Slater S-5 (1916-1917) 1918 AWI India
Telugu AWI7

241 435 No exact accounts are possible, for the ryots do not keep any record of them.

Items.	Rs.	A.	P.
2 Bullocks, for keep... ... ... (The figures given by the four ryots were Rs. 75, 80, 90, 80; two cows also are maintained out of this.)	80	0	0
2 annual servants (Rs. 50 and Rs. 25 respectively)	75	0	0
1 plough, its necessary implements	2	0	0
„ charges for making it	2	0	0
Seed for two crops	28	0	0
Coolies to weed two crops	40	0	0
Coolies to harvest it (some say even Rs. 20) ...	15	0	0
Government tax at Rs. 1-12-0 per acre	17	8	0
Rent, if the land is leased, at least	100	0	0
Perquisites at harvest time—			
to the head servant one bag	7	0	0
to the second servant half a bag	3	8	0
to the village barber three or four seers (at 8 seers per rupee)	0	8	0
to the washerman...	0	8	0
to the shoemaker, 16 or 20 seers	2	8	0
to three village servants, 2 seers each	0	12	0
To manure the fields in summer with rented flocks of sheep and goats, as is the custom, for eight or ten days at an acre a day; the tenant takes three-fourths of the milk on such days ...	35	0	0
Other agricultural implements (even higher) ...	5	0	0
Other repairs of the field, such as digging up the soil, etc.	5	0	0
Total expenses for ten acres ...	424	4	0

• [132] During the last two years there were excessive rains; crops failed badly; there was double the expenditure for useless plants; the cultivators had to sow three times, so that the average expenditure for seed was trebled. Such extraordinary expenditures are frequent. But assuming the season is favourable the utmost that the cultivator can get is—

	Rs.	A.	P.
40 bags of paddy at Rs. 4½ per bag	170	0	0
20 bags of gingelly at Rs. 7½ per bag	150	0	0
30 bags of cholam at Rs. 6¼ per bag	187	8	0
20 bags of Bengal gram at Rs. 8-5-4 per bag ...	175	0	0
20 bags of red gram at Rs. 7½ per bag	150	0	0
Black gram	8	0	0
Total ...	840	8	0

The average crop is Rs. 560 or Rs. 600 per annum. The cultivator can moreover earn in summer 90 or 100 rupees by letting out his cart to convey jaggery.

361 The area of the village-site is 33 acres 32 cents. The dwellings of the depressed castes, about 125 in number, are crowded